DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 349 821 FL 020 640

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TITLE Teachers for Language Minority Students: Evaluating Professional Standards.
PUB DATE Aug 92
NOTE 33p.; In: Focus on Evaluation and Measurement. Volumes 1 and 2. Proceedings of the National Research Symposium on Limited English Proficient Student Issues (2nd, Washington, DC, September 4-6, 1991); see FL 020 630.
PUB TYPE Viewpoints (Opinion/Position Papers, Essays, etc.) (120)

EDRS PRICE MF01/PC02 Plus Postage.
DESCRIPTORS Educational Policy; Educational Trends; Elementary Secondary Education; *Futures (of Society); Instructional Effectiveness; *Language Teachers; *Limited English Speaking; *Standards; *Teacher Certification; Teacher Education
IDENTIFIERS *Language Minorities

ABSTRACT

The purpose of this discussion is to utilize data generated by the policy debate regarding the education of language minority students in the United States in order to assess current understanding of who the students are that teachers are serving, what types of instruction these students are presently receiving, and what types of teachers are presently serving these students. A major presupposition of this discussion is that "who" does the teaching is of major importance regardless of the language minority education model being implemented. The discussion also extends the data base by addressing future directions with regard to the development of effective language minority teachers. Of particular concern is the credentialing policies and their political and empirical underpinnings. Suggestions are provided for ways in which to enhance the educational plight of language minority students by focusing on the educational professionals who serve these students on a daily basis. (VWL)

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Teachers for Language Minority Students: Evaluating Professional Standards

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Introduction

The policy debate regarding the education of language minority students in the United States has centered on the instructional use of the native and/or the English language as a medium and/or target of instruction. For educational professionals and educational researchers, the more specific issue of concern has become the identification, implementation and evaluation of effective instruction of a growing population of ethnolinguistic minority students who do not speak English and, therefore, are considered candidates for special educational programming that takes into consideration this language and cultural difference. Research on this issue has involved representatives of psychology, linguistics, sociology, politics, and education in cross-disciplinary dialogue. For a thorough discussion of these issues see August and Garcia (1988), Baker and deKanter (1983), Cummins (1979), Garcia (1983), Garcia (1991), Hakuta and Garcia (1989), Hakuta and Gould (1987), Ramirez, Yuen and Ramey (1991), Rossell and Ross (1986), Toike (1981), Willig (1985). The central theme of the discussions is the specific instructional role of the native language. At one extreme of this discussion, it is recommended that the native language play a significant part in the non-English-speaking student's elementary school years, from 4-6 years, with a set of standard of native-language mastery prior to immersion into the English curriculum (Cummins, 1979). At the other extreme, immersion into an English curriculum is recommended early, as early as preschool, with minimal use of the native language and concern for English Language leveling by instructional staff to facilitate understanding by the limited-English-speaking student (Rossell and Ross, 1985).

Each of these disparate approaches argues that its implementation brings psychological, linguistic, social, political, and educational benefits. The *native-language* approach suggests that competencies in the native language, particularly as they relate to academic learning, provide important psychological and linguistic foundations for second-language learning and academic learning in general -- "you really only learn to read once." Native-language instruction builds on social and cultural experiences and serves to politically empower students from communities that have been historically limited in

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their meaningful participation in majority educational institutions. The *immersion* approach suggest that, the sooner a child receives instruction in English, the more likely he or she will be to acquire English proficiency -- "more time on task, better proficiency." English proficiency in turn mitigates against educational failure, social separation and segregation, and, ultimately, economic disparity. Such a debate has clearly affected the type of educational professional which should serve these students.

As this debate developed during the 1970s and 1980s, it became clear that the students who came to school speaking a language other than English received considerable attention in research, policy development, and practice. The Department of Education and the Department of Health and Human Services, as well as private foundations, supported specific demographic studies and instructional research related to this population of students, preschool through college. The United States Congress authorized legislation targeted directly at these students on five separate occasions (1968, 1974, 1978, 1984, and 1988), and numerous states enacted legislation and developed explicit program guidelines regarding both instructional alternatives and the requirements of educational professional who would be allowed to serve these students. Moreover, federal district courts and the U.S. Supreme Court concluded adjudication proceedings that directly influenced the educational treatment of language minority students.

The intent of the present discussion is not to focus on the ongoing debate, but instead to utilize the data generated by that debate to assess our present understanding of who the students are that language minority teachers are serving, what types of instruction these students are presently receiving, and, most significantly what types of teachers are presently serving these students. A major presupposition of this discussion is that "who" does the teaching is of major significance regardless of the language minority education model which is being implemented. The discussion will also attempt to extend the data base by cautiously but directly addressing future directions with regard to the development of "effective" language minority teachers. Of particular concern will be credentialing policies and their political and empirical underpinnings. The overall purpose of this discussion is to suggest ways in which to enhance the educational plight of language minority students by focussing on the educational professionals who directly serve these students on a daily basis. A much more localized district level teacher evaluation/ credentialing alternative is prepared for evaluating language minority teachers.

Defining Language Minority Students

The search for a comprehensive definition of the "language minority student" reveals a variety of attempts. At one end of the continuum are general definitions such as "students who come from homes in which a language other than English is spoken." At the other end are highly operational definitions such as, "students who scored in the first quartile on a standardized test of English language proficiency." Regardless of the definition adopted, it is apparent that students vary widely in linguistic abilities. The language minority population in the United States continues to be linguistically heterogeneous. Not inconsequential is the related cultural attributes of these populations of students, which are not only *linguistically* distinct but also *culturally* distinct. Describing the typical language minority student, therefore, is highly problematic. In simple terms, the language minority student is one who (a) is characterized by substantive participation in a non-English-speaking social environment, (b) has acquired the normal communicative abilities of that social environment, and (c) is exposed to a substantive English-speaking environment, more than likely for the first time, during the formal schooling process.

Estimates of the number of language minority students have been compiled by the federal government on several occasions (Development Associates, 1984; O'Malley, 1981). These estimates differ because of the definition adopted for identifying these students, the particular measure utilized to obtain the estimate, and the statistical treatment utilized to generalize beyond the actual sample obtained. For example, O'Malley defines the language minority student population by utilizing a specific cutoff score on an English language proficiency test administered to a stratified sample of students. Development Associates estimates the population by utilizing reports from a stratified sample of local school districts. Therefore, estimates of language minority students have ranged between 1,300,000 (Development Associates, 1984) and 3,600,000 (O'Malley, 1981).

In 1976, the total number of language minority children aged 5-14 approximated 2.52 million, with a drop to 2.39 million in 1980 and a projected gradual increase to 3.40 million by the year 2000 (Waggoner, 1984). In 1983, this population was more conservatively estimated to be 1.29 million (Development Associates, 1984). In 1983, this population was more conservatively estimated to be 1.29 million (Development Associates, 1984). This divergence in estimates reflects the procedures used to obtain language minority counts and estimates. These children reside throughout the United States, but distinct geographical clustering can be identified. About 62 percent of language minority children are found in Arizona, Colorado, California, New Mexico,and Texas (Development Associates,

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1984; O'Malley, 1981; Waggoner, 1984). Of the estimated number of language minority children in 1978, 72 percent were of Spanish Language background, 22 percent were of Asian background, and 1 percent were of American Indian background. However, such distributions will change, due to differential growth rates, and by the year 2000 the proportion of Spanish language background children is projected to be about 77 percent of the total (O'Malley, 1981). Estimates by Development Associates (1984) for students in grades K-6 indicate that 76 percent are of Spanish language background; 8 percent, Southeast Asian (e.g., Vietnamese, Cambodian, Hmong); 5 percent, other European; 5 percent, East Asian (e.g., Chinese, Korean); and 5 percent, other (e.g., Arabic, Navaho). For national school district sample in the 19 most highly impacted states utilized by Development Associates, 17 percent of the total K-6 student population was estimated to be language minority in these states.

Regardless of differing estimates, a significant number of students from language backgrounds other than English attend U.S. schools. As this population increases steadily in the future, the challenge these students present to U.S. educational institutions will increase concomitantly.

Educational Programs Serving These Students

For a school district staff with language minority students, there are many possible program options: e.g., Transitional Bilingual Education, Maintenance Bilingual Education, English-as-a-Second Language, Immersion, Sheltered English, and Submersion (General Accounting Office, 1987). Ultimately, school staffs reject program labels and focus instead on the following questions: (a) What are the native language (L1) and second language (L2) characteristics of the students, families, and communities to be served? (b) What model of instruction is desired? This involves the question of utilizing L1 and L2 as mediums for instruction as well as handling the actual instruction of L1 and L2. (c) What is the nature of the school and resources required to implement the desired instruction?

Programs for language minority students can be differentiated by the ways they utilize the native language and English during instruction. A report by Development Associates (1984) was based on a survey of 333 school districts in the 19 states serving over 80 percent of the language minority students in the United States. For grades K-5, they report the following salient features regarding the use of language(s) during instruction: (a) 93 percent of the schools reported that the use of English predominated in their programs, and conversely, 7 percent indicated that the use of the native language predominated; (b) 60 percent of the sampled schools reported that instruction was in the native language and English; (c) 30 percent of

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the sampled schools reported minimal or no use of the native language during instruction.

Two-thirds of these schools have chosen to utilize some form of bilingual curriculum to serve this population of students. However, about one-third of them minimized or altogether ignored native language use in their instruction of language minority students. Programs that serve Spanish-speaking background students have been characterized primarily as *Bilingual Transitional* education. These programs transition students from early grade, Spanish-emphasis instruction to later grade, *English-Emphasis* instruction and eventually to *English-Only* instruction.

Recent research in transition type programs suggests that language minority students can be served effectively. Effective schools organize and develop educational structures and processes that take into consideration both the broader aspects of effective schools reported for English-speaking students (Purkey & Smith, 1983). Of particular importance has been the positive effect of intensive instruction the native language that focuses on literacy development (Wong-Fillmore & Valdez, 1986). Hakuta and Gould (1987) and Hudelson (1987) maintain that skills and concepts learned in the native language provide a basis for acquisition of new knowledge in the second language.

For the one-third of the students receiving little or no instruction in the native language, two alternative types of instructional approaches, English as a Second Language and Immersion, predominate. Each of these program types depends on the primary utilization of English during instruction but does not ignore the fact that the student served is limited in English proficiency. These programs are used in classrooms in which there is not a substantial number of students from one non-English-speaking group. These programs have been particularly influenced by recent theoretical developments regarding second-language acquisition (Chamot & O'Malley, 1986; Krashen, 1982), and indicate that effective second-language learning is best accomplished under conditions that simulate natural communicative interactions.

It is important to note that the bulk of language minority students served in today's public schools are in elementary schools. The most comprehensive data is still that of Developmental Associates (1984). They report that the schools in their national sample identified three to four times as many Grade 1 students as Grade 5 students. Moreover, 20 percent of students in grades 1 to 3 were transitioned into an English curriculum in any one year. More recent is Olson's (1989) California data which indicates that some 73 percent of language minority students are in grades K-6. Those schools sampled by Developmental Associates (1984) and a similar

national sample studied by Halcon (1981) provide some empirical data with regard to the instructional staff that serves these elementary students:

1. The schools serving language minority students in grades 1-5 had 4.0 teachers, 3.5 paraprofessionals and 1.1 resource or instructional support staff (Chapter 1 aide, Migrant aide, etc.).

2. Teachers in these classrooms had a median 5.8 years of experience teaching language minority students. However, 50 percent of these teachers had less than 3 years of teaching experience with language minority students.

3. Less than 50 percent of teachers responsible for instruction of language minority students spoke a language other than English.

4. Less than 30 percent of these teachers had obtained language minority education related credentials.

This service and staffing data indicate that school district staff have been creative in developing a wide range of programs for language minority students. They have answered the previously listed questions differentially for (a) different language groups (Spanish, Vietnamese, Chinese, etc.), (b) different grade levels within a school, (c) different language subgroups of students within a classroom and even different levels of language proficiency. The result has been a broad and, at times, perplexing variety of program models. It is also clear that these programs are staffed extensively with paraprofessionals and with teachers who have limited teaching experience with the population of students they serve, with half not able to speak the student's native language, and with more than two-thirds not holding a specific professional credential related to language minority education.

Effective Teachers for Language Minority Students

Although it is difficult to identify specific attributes of teachers that have served language students effectively, recent efforts have attempted to do so. Unlike earlier reports which have identified and described effective programs, recent efforts have sought out effective programs and/or schools, then attempted to describe the specific instructional and attitudinal character of the teacher (Carter & Chatfield, 1986; Garcia, 1988; Garcia, 1991; Pease-Alvarez, Garcia and Espinosa, 1991; Tikenuff, 1983; Villegas, 1991). This new emphasis on the language minority education teacher is related to the

broader interest in identifying "exemplary" teacher characteristics for teachers in general (Reynolds and Elias, 1991). Dwyer (1991) identifies four domains which "good teachers excel in: (1) content knowledge; (2) teaching for student learning; (3) creating a classroom community for student learning; and (4) teacher professionalism. Villegas (1991) has extended these four domains when the student population served by the teacher is culturally and linguistically diverse. She suggests that "good" teachers in these classroom contexts are required to incorporate culturally responsive pedagogy. To go beyond these generalizations, the following section describes specific research which has attempted to document empirically the attributes of effective language minority teachers. These studies are few, but they begin to provide a set of practice standards which may be useful in training and evaluating language minority teachers.

A concern for the effectiveness of teachers is not new. From the earliest days of education program evaluation, the quality of the instructional staff has been considered a significant feature (Heath, 1982). Unfortunately, for programs serving language minority students, the evaluation of "effectiveness" has been consumed by an empirical concern regarding the significance of the use/non-use of the students' native language and the academic development of the English language (August and Garcia, 1988). Very little attention is given to the attributes of the professional and para-professional staff which implements the myriad of models and program types omnipresent in the service of language minority students. Typically, attention to the characteristics of such a staff is restricted only to the years of service and extent of formal educational training received (Olsen, 1988). Yet, most educational researchers will grant that the effect of any instructional intervention is directly related to the quality of that intervention's implementation by the instructor(s).

Attention to "exemplary" programs and "exemplary" teachers comes from the great dissatisfaction the field of language minority education has come to realize with regard to the limited conclusions and unproductive debates regarding the relative effectiveness of bilingual education (Hakuta, 1985; Hakuta and Garcia, 1989). This field has continually been subjected to national evaluations. The most recent is the Ramirez, Yuen, Ramey and Pasta (1991) study, which attempts to assess the academic effects of various bilingual, ESL, and other approaches. Such studies are continually criticized for their methodological flaws, and, have little effect on the field—on what teachers do in classrooms (August and Garcia, 1988). Beginning with Tikunoff (1983), more in-depth studies of "good" language minority schools and classrooms addressed the specific organizational and instructional characteristics in programs which were "working" for language minority students. Such an emphasis suggests that there is much to learn from programs that are serving language minority students well. Instead of searching for the "best"

model by doing large scale comparative studies, all which will likely be methodologically flawed, this new line of inquiry suggested that we search out effective programs and carefully document the attributes which make them effective. From such data, other programs seeking to better serve language minority students could at least compare themselves to these "exemplary and effective" organizational features, instructional practices and teacher attributes (Carter and Chatfield, 1986; Garcia, 1988; Pease-Alvarez, Garcia and Espinosa, 1991 and Garcia, 1991).

It is in this more "micro" spirit, that the present discussion attempts to specifically advance our understanding of what makes "good" language minority teachers. Such a discussion requires the reliable identification of the "exemplary" teacher, no small task, along with the interview and observation of these individuals. In addition, interviews of school administrators and parents should assist in a more comprehensive perspective of these significant individuals. It is not the purpose of this discussion to suggest that all "good" language minority teachers need to be like the ones described in the present literature. Instead, it is the intent of the discussion to carefully describe the attributes of these effective teachers in such a way that others may make use of this information to better serve language minority students.

Tikunoff (1983), in his report of the Significant Bilingual Instructional Features (SBIF) study, reports commonalties in the "exemplary" teacher's response to organization and instruction of classrooms. The 58 teachers observed in this study covered six sites and included a variety of non-English languages. All classes were considered effective on two criteria: First, teachers were nominated by members of four constituencies -- teachers, other school personnel, students, and parents -- as being effective. Second, teaching behaviors produced rates of academic learning time (a measure of student engagement in academic tasks) as high as or higher than reported in other effective teaching research.

An initial set of instructional features identified for the effective teachers pertains to the delivery and organization of instruction:

1. Successful teachers of limited-English-proficient (LEP) students specify task outcomes and what students must do to accomplish tasks. In addition, teachers communicate high expectations for LEP students in terms of learning and a sense of efficacy in terms of their own ability to teach.

2. Successful teachers of LEP students, not unlike effective teachers in general, exhibit use of active teaching behaviors found to be related to increased student performance on academic tests of achievement in reading and mathematics including: (a) commu-

nicating clearly when giving directions specifying tasks and presenting new information; (b) obtaining and maintaining students' engagement in instructional tasks by pacing instruction appropriately, promoting involvement, and communicating their expectations for students' success in completing instructional tasks; (c) monitoring students' progress; and (d) providing immediate feedback whenever required regarding students' success.

3. Successful teachers of LEP students mediated instruction for LEP students by using the students' native language and English for instruction, alternating between the two languages whenever necessary to ensure clarity of instruction. Although this type of language switching occurred, teachers did not translate directly from one language to another.

The SBIF study also reports that the teacher made use of information from the LEP students' home culture so as to promote engagement in instructional tasks and contribute to a feeling of trust between children and their teachers. The SBIF researchers found three ways in which home and community culture was incorporated into classroom life: (a) Cultural referents in both verbal and nonverbal forms were used to communicate instructional and institutional demands; (b) instruction was organized to build upon rules of discourse from the L1 culture; and (c) values and norms of the L1 culture were respected equally with those of the school.

In more recent research which focused on Mexican-American elementary school children, Garcia (1988) has reported several related instructional strategies utilized by effective teachers. These teachers were nominated by language minority colleagues and served students who were scoring at or above the national average on Spanish and/or English standardized measures of academic achievement. Garcia's (1988) research characterized instruction in the effective classrooms as follows:

1. Students were instructed primarily in small groups and academic-related discourse was encouraged between students throughout the day. Teachers rarely utilized large group instruction or more individualized (mimeographed worksheets) instructional activities. The most common activity across classes involved small groups of students working on assigned academic tasks with intermittent assistance by the teacher;

2. The teacher tended to provide an instructional initiation often reported in the literature (Mehan, 1979; Morine-Dershimer, 1985). Teachers elicited student responses but did so at relatively non-higher-order cognitive and linguistic levels; and,

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3. Once a lesson elicitation occurred, teachers encouraged students to take control of the discourse by inviting fellow student interaction, usually at higher-order cognitive and linguistic levels.

Teachers in the Garcia (1988) study fulfilled general expectations reported by Mehan (1979) for regular expectations and by Ramirez (1986) and Ramirez, Yuen, Ramey and Pasta (1991) for language minority teachers. Teachers did not invite instructional interaction in other than the most communicatively simple mode (factual and truncated "answer giving"). This type of elicitation style may be particularly problematic for Hispanic Language minority students in that these students may not be challenged by this style of instructional discourse to utilize either their native or second language to express complex language functions which reflect higher-order cognitive processes. However, teachers were clearly allowing student-to-student interaction in the child-reply component of the instructional discourse segment. Teachers encouraged and engineered general student participation once the instructional peer interaction was set in motion. This finding is particularly significant. Garcia (1983) suggests that such student-to-student interaction discourse strategies are important to enhanced linguistic development. Wong-Fillmore and Valadez (1986) report that peer interaction was particularly significant for enhancing second language oral acquisition in Hispanic children. Moreover, Kagan (1986) has suggested that schooling practices which focus on collaborative child-child instructional strategies are in line with developed social motives in Mexican American families. The interactional style documented in this study seems to be in concert with that which is most beneficial, both linguistically and culturally, to Mexican American students.

A recent study (Garcia, 1991) focused on three teachers, a first grade, third grade, and fifth grade teacher, in a highly regarded Spanish/English, bilingual school. These teachers were consistently identified at the school site level and at the district level as "effective" teachers. Approximately 50 percent to 70 percent of their students were Spanish dominant, the remainder were English dominant. The findings of this study with regard to teacher attributes were divided into four distinct but interlocking domains: (a) Knowledge, (b) Skills, (c) Dispositions, and, (d) Affect.

Knowledge

These teachers were all bilingual and biliterate in English and Spanish. They had the prerequisite state teacher credentials and had graduated from specific bilingual, teacher-training programs. They had an average of 7.1 years experience as bilingual teachers. Therefore, these were not novice teachers with little general teaching or language minority teaching experience. In addition, they reported

that they routinely participated in staff development efforts, either taking courses or attending workshops on techniques that they wanted to implement in their classrooms. Some of the workshops, sponsored by the school or district, were mandatory. These teachers also participated in courses that they sought out and financed on their own, some related to Spanish language development and others related to pedagogy and curriculum.

These teachers were quite knowledgeable and articulate with regard to the instructional philosophies which guided them. They communicated these quite coherently in their interviews. They never hesitated in addressing "why" they were using specific instructional techniques and usually couched these explanations in terms of a theoretical position regarding their role with regard to teaching and "how" students learn. Principals and parents also commented on these teachers' ability to communicate effectively the rationales for their instructional techniques. One principal commented, "She's always able to defend her work with her students. When she first came here, I didn't agree with all that she was doing, and sometimes I still do not agree. But she always helps me understand why she is doing what she is doing. I respect her for that. She is not a 'recipe teacher'." A parent commented with regard to her children's journal writing: I didn't understand why she was letting _____ make all these spelling mistakes. It annoyed me. During the teacher-parent conference, she showed me the progress _____ was making. His spelling was getting better without taking a spelling test every week. I was surprised. She knows what she's doing." A parent concerned about his daughter, not competent in English in the third grade, indicated, "Me explicó que aprendiendo en español le va a ayudar a mi hija hablar mejor el inglés. Dice bién, porque mi hijo que vino conmigo de Mexico, hablando y escribiendo en español, aprendio el inglés muy facil." Moreover, these teachers seemed to be quite competent in the content areas. The upper elementary teacher who was instructing students in fractions had a solid and confident understanding of fractions. She did not seem to be "one step ahead of the students."

Skills

Despite their differing perspectives, the teachers demonstrated specific instructional skills. They used English and Spanish in highly communicative ways, speaking to students with varying degrees of Spanish and English proficiency in a communicative style requiring significant language switching. Direct translation from one language to another was a rarity, but, utilization of language switching in contexts which required it was common.

Of course, variations existed among these exemplary teachers. However, each had developed a particular set of instructional skills which they indicated led to their own effectiveness:

1. Teachers had adopted an experiential stance toward instruction. Along with many of their colleagues, these exemplary teachers had abandoned a strictly skills-oriented approach to instruction. To varying degrees, they organized instruction in their classes so that children first focused on that which was meaningful to them. Early grade teachers used an approach to reading instruction that treated specific skills in the context of extended pieces of text (e.g., an entire book, passage, or paragraph). They initiated shared reading experiences by reading to and with children from an enlarged book, pointing to each word as they read. Because most of these books relied on a recurring pattern (e.g., a repeating syntactical construction, rhyming words, repetitions), children who could not read words in isolation were able to predict words and entire constructions when participating in choral reading activities. With time, teachers encouraged students to focus on individual words, sound-letter correspondences, and syntactic constructions. The teacher also encouraged children to rely on other cueing systems as they predicted and confirmed what they had read as a group or individually.

These teachers also utilized a thematic curriculum. Science and social studies themes were often integrated across a variety of subject areas. Once a theme was determined, usually in consultation with students, the teachers planned instruction around a series of activities that focus on that theme. For example, a unit on dinosaurs included reading books about dinosaurs, categorizing and graphing different kinds of dinosaurs, a trip to a museum featuring dinosaur exhibits, writing stories or poems about a favorite dinosaur, and speculating on the events that led to the dinosaurs' disappearance. In the third grade classroom, a student suggested that the theme address "the stuff in the field that makes my little brother sick": pesticides. The teacher developed a four week theme which engaged students in understanding the particular circumstances in which many of them reside with regard to pesticide use.

Despite the use of instructional strategies that depart from traditional skills-based approaches to curriculum and instruction, these teachers did sometimes structure learning around individual skills or discrete components. For example, the teachers devoted a week or two to preparing students for standardized tests. During this time they taught skills that would be tested and administered practice tests: "I don't like testing. But we have to do it. I teach my kids how to mark the bubbles and I make sure that they take their time. We practice test-taking, but we don't take it seriously."

2. Teachers provided opportunities for active learning. These teachers organized a good portion of class time around a series of learning activities that children pursued either independently or with others. During science and math, children worked in small groups doing a variety of hands-on activities designed to support their understanding of a particular concept (e.g., classification, estimation, place value) or subject area (e.g., oceanography, dinosaurs).

Teachers' commitments to active learning were revealed in their commitments to a studio or workshop format for literacy instruction. Instead of teaching students about reading and writing, teachers organized their program so that students actively read and wrote. Real reading and writing took place in the context of a literature-based reading program and during regularly scheduled times when students wrote in their journals on topics of their own choosing and teachers responded to their entries. There was also time for students to engage in writers' workshops. During this time students generated their own topics, wrote, revised, edited, and published their finished writings for a larger audience. As with adult published authors, they shared their writing with others and often received input that helped them revise and improve upon what they had written. For example, one teacher commented, "These kids produce their own reading material and they take it home to share it with their parents. It's real good stuff. I help a little, but its the kids that help each other the most."

3. Teachers encouraged collaborative/cooperative interactions among students. These teachers organized instruction so that students spent time working together on a wide range of instructional activities. The two primary grade teachers structured their day so that students worked on group and individual activities (e.g., graphing, journal writing, science projects) in small heterogeneously, organized groups. Students who worked in small groups on their own art project, journal, or experiment did not necessarily interact with other members of their group. Teachers explained that students, particularly those who did not share the same dominant language, often ignored one another during these kinds of group activities. They felt that cross-cultural interactions was much more likely to take place when students were obliged to work together to complete a single task.

Dispositions

The following descriptions of teacher attributes were considered "dispositions" because no other category seems relevant. They are individual characteristics which these teachers possessed. They are likely to be relevant to their success more as professionals than as

teachers. For instance, these teachers were highly dedicated. They reported working very hard, getting to school first and being the last to leave, working weekends, and sometimes feeling completely overworked. They reported spending close to $2,000 of their own resources in modifying their room and obtaining the materials their students needed. They indicated that they saw themselves as "creative," "resourceful," "committed," "energetic," "persistent," and "collaborative." They sought out assistance from their colleagues and were ready to provide as much assistance as they received.

Although these teachers felt that they were effective, they were not complacent. They continued to change their instructional practices and in some cases their instructional philosophies over the years. These teachers reported experiencing great change in their approach to learning and instruction, having shifted "paradigms." These teachers, who once advocated skills-based and authoritarian modes of instruction such as "DISTAR," are now considering and experimenting with child-centered approaches. Teachers felt that they enjoyed a certain degree of autonomy in their school. They felt free to implement the changes that they wanted. In recent years, when they have wanted to implement something new in their classroom, they have gone to their principal with a carefully thought-out rationale and have eventually enlisted her/his support. These teachers have been involved in change that has had an impact on other classrooms as well as their own. Along with other teachers, they have obtained support to eliminate teaming and ability grouping across subject areas in the first grade. In addition, they were actively involved in the district-wide teacher-initiated movement to eliminate kindergarten testing. These teachers were involved in individual and group efforts to improve the quality of education at the school and district level. In short, these teachers were highly committed to improving themselves and the services to students in general.

Above all, they were highly confident, even a bit "cocky" regarding their instructional abilities: "I have changed my own view on how students learn -- we need to understand learning does not occur in bits and pieces. Why do teachers still insist on teaching that way?" "I know what I am doing is good for kids. Some of my colleagues say I work too hard -- I say they do not work hard enough. Not that they are lazy, they just don't seem to understand how important it is to do this job right"; "I know my kids are doing well, all of them. I would rather keep them with me all day then send them to someone who is supposed to help them in their 'special' needs but doesn't help them at all."

Affect

These teachers had strong feelings that classroom practices that reflect the cultural and linguistic background of minority students

are important ways of enhancing student self-esteem. These teachers felt that part of their job was to provide the kind of cultural and linguistic validation that is missing in the local community known for deprecating the Latino culture and Spanish language. According to these teachers, learning Spanish and learning about Latino culture benefits Anglo students as well as Latino students. In their eyes, people who learn a second language tend to be more sensitive to other cultures. Like other teachers, these teachers felt that being bilingual and bicultural enriched their students' lives.

Latino culture is reflected in the content of the curriculum in various ways. The two primary grade teachers, who organized their curriculum around a variety of student-generated themes, addressed cultural experiences of Latino students within the themes. For example, in a unit on monsters, they highlighted Mexican legends and folktales that deal with the supernatural (e.g., "La Llorona"). In addition, these teachers emphasized the importance of reading and making available literature that reflects the culture of their Latino students. They also encouraged students to share favorite stories, poems, and sayings that they learned at home.

These teachers had high expectations for all their students: "No 'pobrecito' syndrome here -- I want all my students to learn and I know they can learn even though they may come from very poor families and may live under 'tough' conditions. I can have them do their homework here and I can even get them a tutor -- an older student -- if they need it. I understand that their parents may not be able to help them at home. That's no excuse for them not learning." In many respects, these teachers portrayed themselves as quite demanding, taking no excuses from students for not accomplishing assigned work and willing to be "tough" on those students who were "messing around."

Most significant was the teachers' affinity toward their students: "These students are like my very own children"; "I love these children like my own. I know that parents expect me to look after their kids and to let them know if they are in trouble"; "When I walk into that classroom I know we are a family and we're going to be together a whole year....I try to emphasize first that we are a family here....I tell my students, 'You're like brothers and sisters' and some students even call me Mom or Tia. It's just like being at home here." Each teacher spoke of the importance of strong and caring relationships among class members and particularly between the teacher and the students. They felt that this provided students with a safe environment that was conducive to learning.

Parents also reported a similar feeling. They directly referred to the teachers in the interviews as extended family members, someone to be trusted, respected, and honored for their service to their chil-

dren. These teachers were often invited to "bautismos," "bodas," and "fiestas de cumpleaños," and also to soccer games and family barbecues. And they attended such occasions, reporting that such participation was inherently rewarding and instructive with regard to their own personal and professional lives. Parents commented during interviews: "La señorita _____, le tengo mucha confianza, quiero que mi niño la respete como a mi"; "Nunca se larga mi nina de ella, se porta como mi hermana, siempre le puedo hablar y me gusta mucho ayudarle"; "I know my son is well cared for in her class, I never worry -- she even calls me when he does something good."

This discussion has focused on attributes of teachers who are considered "effective" for language-minority students. These teachers are highly experienced, not novices in teaching or in the instruction of language minority students. They are highly skilled in communication with students, parents, and their administrative supervisors. They think about and communicate their own instructional philosophies. They work hard to understand the community, families, and students which they serve and incorporate into the curriculum attributes of the local culture. They have adopted instructional methods which are student centered, collaborative and process oriented -- no "worksheet" curriculum here. They are highly dedicated, work hard, collaborate with colleagues and continue to be involved in personal and professional growth activities. Most significantly, these teachers care for their students. They are advocates, having "adopted" their students they watch out for their students' welfare while at the same time challenging students with high expectations, not accepting the "pobrecito" syndrome.

Implications for Professional Training and Credentialing

The preceding analysis has provided an overview of research, policy, and practice as they relate to the education of linguistic minority students of the United States and those educational professionals who also teach them. It is clear that a variety of programmatic efforts have been developed in response to this growing body of students. It has also become evident that professional education training, particularly for teachers, has not kept pace with the demand for specifically trained educational personnel with expertise in these new programmatic endeavors. However, it is not the case that training and credentialing of such individuals has been completely ignored. The following discussion will provide an overview of activities in this domain. Although not exhaustive, the discussion should provide a foundation for understanding the types of issues relevant to training and credentialing a competent linguistic minority teacher. It is appropriate to indicate that other views, some more detailed, are available (see Ada, 1986; Chu & Levy, 1984, 1988; Collier, 1985).

Linguistic Minority Education: An Instructional Innovation

In any discussion of professional training for linguistic minority education, it is important to note that such training is a relatively new enterprise. Not until the mid 1960s did substantial educational initiatives exist in this specialized arena. It was not until 1974 that the U.S. Congress authorized resources for training activities by institutions of higher education in this area of education (August and Garcia, 1988). The recent nature of this innovation, much like similar developments in the field of special education, has spawned many new training programs that are still struggling to establish themselves as legitimate areas of training alongside longer standing programs in elementary and secondary education. This newness is complicated by the nature of the training-program content; that is, this new program just takes a more multidisciplinary perspective. It must be concerned not only with subject matter and pedagogy but also much more directly with language (native language and/or second language) and instruction for populations that are culturally diverse.

The 1980-82 Teachers Language Skills Survey identified the need for 100,000 bilingual teachers if bilingual programs were implemented in schools in which LEP students from one language background were sufficiently concentrated to make such programs feasible. In 1982, there were an estimated 27,000 to 32,000 trained bilingual teachers, leaving 68,000 to 73,000 yet to be trained. Since 168 institutions of higher education graduate approximately 2,000 to 2,600 trained bilingual teachers each year (Blatchford, 1982), the shortage will continue. The Teachers Language Skills Survey reported that, of 103,000 teachers assigned to teach ESL, only 40 percent had received any training in the methods of doing so. It is estimated that at least 350,000 teachers currently need such specialized training (O'Malley, 1981; Waggoner, 1984). Most unfortunate, is the near "study-state" production of language in minority credentialed teachers. In California, for example, a state experiencing record increases in language minority students, the number of teachers credentialed per year in areas related to language minority education, 1982-89, increased by only 5 percent. During this same period, overall yearly teacher credentialing increased by 48 percent (California Commission on Teacher Credentialing, 1990). During this same period there was a general student population increase of 13 percent, but a 45 percent increase in language minority students (Olsen, 1988).

Halcon (1981) and Development Associates (1984) report on the types of training that linguistic minority teachers working in the field have actually experienced. Less than 25 percent of such teachers report graduating from a specific program designed to meet their

needs. Instead, most teachers in linguistic minority classrooms have participated in a variety of unsystematic university coursework, district workshops, and federally or state supported in-service training activities. Moreover, the average formal instructional experience of a teacher assigned major instructional responsibilities related to language minority students is less than 3.5 years. Recall that less than 33 percent of instructors in linguistic minority classrooms or in related support roles hold the requisite state credentials (in those states where such credentials are available and in the majority of cases actually mandatory). Such data continue to suggest that linguistic minority education programs are staffed by professionals not directly trained for such programs who might be acquiring their expertise on the job. This situation indicates that the education of language minority students continues to be viewed as a temporary innovation. By their very nature, educational innovations do not have well-developed training strategies or institutional recognition; they must go through a developmental process to achieve the desired goals of status and permanence. Teacher credentialing related to language minority students is still in its "innovation" phase.

Specific Professional Training Issues

On the basis of the foregoing foundation of linguistic minority teacher training, it is proper to consider briefly the actual content of such preparation prior to any discussion of teacher evaluation or credentialing. As with all training endeavors, it has always been incumbent upon the trainers to identify the desired end product of their efforts in some form of performance competencies. The literature abounds with numerous listings of such competencies (Collier, 1985). The most recent and most detailed is presented by Chu and Levy (1988). This list of competencies is derived from a review of federally and non-federally supported linguistic minority training programs presently operating within United States universities. It focuses on some 34 intercultural competencies, no small number, that serve as a foundation for anticipated instructional success of a well-prepared linguistic minority educator. These competencies are organized into knowledge regarding theory, society, and classroom.

The most widely distributed cited list of credential related competencies was developed and published in 1984 by the National Association of State Directors of Teacher Education and Certification. That list, presented in an abbreviated format in Table 2, was a result of combining previous competency lists developed by the Center for Applied Linguistics in 1974 and the Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages association in 1975. The list, although not as comprehensive as the Chu and Levy (1988) list, has served as a cornerstone of teacher-training programs and credentialing analysis in the United States. (See Table 1.)

Table 1
NASDTEC Certification Standards*

Content Standards in Bilingual/Multicultural Education (B/M ED)	Possible IHE Course Offerings
1. Proficiency in L1 and L2 for effective teaching.	Foreign language and English department courses
2. Knowledge of history and cultures of L1 and L2 speakers	Cross-cultural studies, multicultural education (ME), history and civilization, literature, ethnic studies
3. Historical, philosophical, and legal bases ED and related research	Foundations of BE (or introduction to BE)
4. Organizational models for programs and classrooms in B/M ED	Foundations of BE
5. L2 methods of teaching (including ESL methodology)	Methods of teaching a second language
6. Communication with students, parents, and others in culturally and linguistically different	Cross-cultural studies, school/community relations communities
7. Differences between L1 and L2; language and dialect differences across geographic regions, ethnic groups, social levels	Sociolinguistics, bilingualism

Content Standards in English for Speakers of Other Languages	Possible IHE Course Offerings
1. Nature of language, language varieties, structure of English language morphology	General linguistics; English phonology, and syntax
2. Demonstrated proficiency in spoken and written English	English department courses
3. Demonstrated proficiency in a second language L1 and L2 acquisition process	Foreign language courses Language acquisition
4. L1 and L2 acquisition process	Language acquisition
5. Effects of socio-cultural variables on learning	Language acquisition, ME, cross-cultural l studies, sociolinguistics
6. Language assessment, program development, implementation, and evaluation	Language assessment, program development, and evaluation

*These are supplemental standards to the NASDTEC professional education standards required of all teachers.

Recently states and school districts have begun to articulate the actual expected roles and responsibilities of language minority teachers. New Jersey, for example, identifies its expectations in a New Jersey State Board of Education handbook (1991):

Role of Bilingual Teachers

The following responsibilities should be considered by the district when defining the role of bilingual teachers. The bilingual teacher should:

- help identify limited English proficient students;
- participate with administrators in designing a bilingual program that meets the needs of eligible students;
- communicate with ESL and other teachers in planning for the bilingual program students in ESL and special subject areas;
- provide input in areas covered by pupil personnel services;
- apply current research findings regarding the education of children from diverse cultural and linguistic backgrounds;
- develop language proficiency in the native language of the students enrolled in the program and in English;
- have knowledge of techniques, strategies, and materials that aid teaching in two languages;
- structure the use of two languages to systematically make the transition from the native language to English;
- select activities and materials for classroom use which indicate an understanding of the developmental level of the students;
- help students to identify similarities and differences for successful interaction in a cross-cultural setting;
- provide experiences that encourage positive student self-concept; and
- promote and understand the supportive role and responsibilities of parent/guardians and explain the bilingual program to them.

Role of ESL Teachers

The following responsibilities should be considered by the district when defining the role of ESL teachers. The ESL teacher should:

- help identify limited English proficiency students;
- participate with administrators in designing ESL program that meets the needs of eligible students;
- communicate with other teachers in planning for the teaching of the ESL program student in the bilingual or English-only classroom;
- demonstrate awareness of current trends in ESL and bilingual education;
- demonstrate proficiency in English commensurate with the role of a language model;
- use English as the principal medium of instruction in the areas of pronunciation, listening comprehension, speaking, structure, reading, and writing;
- select activities and materials for ESL use which indicate an understanding of the language proficiency level of the students;
- express interest in, and have an understanding for the native culture of the students;
- provide experiences that encourage positive student self-concept; and
- promote and understand the supportive role and responsibilities of parents/guardians and explain the ESL program to them.

Source: Guidelines for Development of Program Plan and Evaluation Summary. Bilingual/ESL Programs and English Language Services, Fiscal Year 1991. New Jersey State Department of Education.

Credentialing and Professional Assessment of Language Minority Teachers

The professional assessment of language minority teachers is a substantially problematic, complex, cumbersome and area "ripe" for criticism. Even more so than the art of teacher assessment in general. It is important to note in this regard that professions are characterized by two broad features (Friedson, 1986): (a) acquisition of knowledge obtained through formal education endeavors, (b) an orientation toward serving needs of the public, with particular emphasis on an ethical and altruistic concern for the client. Therefore, teaching in this country's public schools, and teaching language mi-

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nority students clearly qualifies as a profession. Given the "professional" nature of this enterprise, a concern for assessment of the professional should not come as a surprise. Assessing professional competence is as old as professionals. According to McGahie (1991), Moses and Jesus Christ set out direct guidelines for assessing religious professionals; Confucius argued that "No man is a good doctor who has never been sick himself"; and, Shakespeare, in the Henry VII soliloquy regarding lawyers, wrote, "Heaven is above all, yet: there sits a Judge, that no king can corrupt." Society or its representatives have been judging the competence of professionals for quite some time. However, it is important to note that like professional themselves, judgments of professional competence are embedded in a local time and place, in line with the professions' "Zeitgeist." That is, these assessments are in concert with the general intellectual and ethical climate and needs of the time (McGahie, 1991).

The assessment of teachers, and language minority teachers is no different. Our present concerns with regard to professional assessment are driven by the ethical considerations of our time and the pressing needs for such professionals. Very specifically, we have relegated the "job" of professional assessment in this country to the states or to professional societies, or, some combination of these institutional representatives. In addition, we have chosen to either focus on assessing the individual as a preprofessional before allowing that individual to enter the profession (usually through examination, the National Teaching Exam is an example), or, we have focused our attention on the assessment of the preprofessional institutions/programs which produce teaching professionals (the NCATE reviews are an examples of "association" reviews while the California Commission on Teaching Credentialing program reviews are examples of state authorized reviews). In some cases, both individual and program review is required.

As is the case for teacher assessment and credentialing of "regular" teachers, the credentialing of language minority teachers is quite variable. Table 2 provides a summary of teacher certification requirements and/or opportunities for specific professional teaching services directed at language minority students. The table identifies the type of teaching credential which are available in all 50 states and U.S. territories along with information regarding that state's or territory's legislative stance regarding such credentialing. These data indicate that 25 states presently do not offer professional credentialing in this domain of the teaching profession. That is, half of the country does not attend to this professional sub-category. These states are not formally interested in any special professional teaching competences related to language minority students. It is not coincidental that those states least impacted by language minority students are those same states which do not address the professional assessment of teachers serving these students. Keep in mind that all states require certification of their public school, teaching professionals.

Table 2
Teaching for Language Minority Students: Evaluating Professional Standards

Teaching Credentials: 1991 State Profiles

State or Territory	Legislation 1*				Teacher Cert 2*	
	MANDATES	PERMITS	PROHIBITS BE	NO STATUTES	BIL EDUCATION	ESL or OTHER
Alabama				✓		
Alaska	✓					
Arizona	✓				✓	✓
Arkansas				✓		
California		✓			✓	✓
Colorado		✓			✓	
Connecticut	✓					
Delaware				✓	✓	
D.C.				✓	✓	✓
Florida				✓	✓	✓
Georgia				✓		
Hawaii				✓		✓
Idaho				✓		
Illinois	✓				✓	✓
Indiana		✓				
Iowa	✓					
Kansas		✓				
Kentucky				✓		✓
Louisiana				✓		✓
Maine		✓				
Maryland				✓		
Massachusetts	✓				✓	✓
Michigan	✓				✓	
Minnesota		✓			✓	✓
Mississippi				✓		✓
Missouri				✓		
Montana				✓		
Nebraska				✓	✓	✓
Nevada				✓		✓
New Hampshire		✓			✓	✓
New Jersey	✓				✓	✓
New Mexico		✓			✓	✓
New York		✓			✓	✓
North Carolina				✓		✓
North Dakota				✓		

State or Territory	Legislation 1*				Teacher Cert 2*	
	MANDATES	PERMITS	PROHIBITS BE	NO STATUTES	BIL EDUCATION	ESL or OTHER
Ohio				✓	✓	✓
Oklahoma				✓		
Oregon		✓				
Pennsylvania				✓		
Rhode Island		✓			✓	✓
South Carolina				✓		
South Dakota		✓				
Tennessee				✓		✓
Texas	✓				✓	✓
Utah		✓				
Vermont				✓	✓	
Virginia				✓		✓
Washington	✓				✓	✓
West Virginia			✓			
Wisconsin	✓				✓	✓
Wyoming				✓		
Amer Samoa		✓			✓	
Guam	✓				✓	
N. Marianas				✓		
Puerto Rico				✓		✓
Tr Terr of Pacific				✓		
Virgin Islands		✓				

1* Wether state legislation mandates, permits, or prohibits special educational services for limited-English-proficiency (LEP) students. e.g., transitional bilingual education (TBE). English as a second language (ESL), immersion, and maintenance programs.

2* Wether state offers teaching certification in Bilingual Education, ESL, or other related areas.

Source: U.S. Department of Education, National Clearinghouse for Bilingual Education, (1986). Forum, IX, 3; Updated by each SEA Listed (1991).

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Of particular interest is a subset of states which when taken together are home to almost two-thirds of this nation's language minority students: California, Florida, Illinois, New York, New Jersey and Texas. In these states, bilingual credentialing and ESL or some other related credential/endorsement is available. However, in only three of the six states is such credentialing mandated. Therefore, even in states which are highly "impacted" by language minority students, there is no the direct concern for the specific mandating of professional standards. Valencia (1991) has suggested that with the segregation of language minority students, particularly Chicano students in the Southwest, state school systems are not equally affected by these students. Chicano students tend to be concentrated in a few school districts within the state, and even though their academic presence is felt strongly by these individual districts, they do not exert this same pressure statewide. I will return to this important observation, since it identifies a possible alternative forum for professional assessment of significance to enhancing services to language minority students.

Even for those states (a total of 28 states) which address the specific need to assess the professional competence of language minority teachers, the present modes of assessment are highly problematic. unfortunately, the data is quite clear on the problems of individual assessment of teacher professional competence. Present professional assessment can be criticized on several levels (McGahie, 1991; Sternberg and Wagner, 1986; Shimberg, 1983):

1. Professional competence evaluations usually address only a narrow range of practice situations. Professionals engage in very complex planning, development, implementation, problem solving and crisis management. These endeavors do not usually require technical skills and knowledge which are easily measured. The earlier discussion of "effective" language minority teachers (Garcia,1991) exemplifies this complexity.

2. Professional competence evaluations are biased toward assessing formally acquired knowledge, likely due to the preponderance of similar assessment of student academic achievement. We assess teachers like we assess students, even though we have differing expectations regarding these populations.

3. Despite the presumed importance of "practice" skills, professional competence assessments devote little attention to the assessment of enunciated practice skills. With regard to language minority teachers, we do have some understanding of specific skills that "might" be necessary. Although due to the lack of specific research in this domain, I would be hard pressed to articulate the exact skills which I would recommend in need of assessment.

4. Almost no attention is given to what has earlier been identified as the "disposition" and "affective" domains of the language minority teacher. Yet, in recent "effective" teacher analysis, these teacher attributes were identified as significant as content knowledge and practice skills (Pease-Alvarez, Garcia and Espinosa, 1991).

In addition to the above concerns, professional assessment instruments are subject to severe violations of reliability and validity. Feldt and Brennan (1989) have demonstrated that components of measurement error are highly inconsistent in the arena of professional assessment. Similarly, test validity is a fundamental problem for professional assessment (Berk, 1986). Keep in mind that inference about professional competence or ability to practice are actually inferences about specific constructs. This is the old and dangerous "chicken-and-egg-problem." We construct an assessment and soon we are willing to say that whomever scores at "such-and-such" on that assessment is competent. At the base of this assessment however, is the legitimacy of the constructs which generated the assessment. We presently lack any definitive body of research and knowledge regarding the constructs which embody good teachers, in general, and good language minority teachers, specifically. That knowledge base is developing, but it is presently not substantive in nature (Garcia, 1991).

What are we left with? According to McGahie (1991), teacher professional assessment actually is operating within the "connoisseur" model of professional assessment. This model carries certain presuppositions which are relevant to language minority education:

1. Not all features of professional practice can be quantified.

2. There is no "one best answer" to a professional problem or question.

3. Connoisseurs are unbiased, fair in rendering decisions, and due to their demonstrated competence and commitment to the profession and students are the most effective evaluators of teaching professionals.

The connoisseur model is routinely used in a number of professional assessment endeavors like the performing arts and theatre. We would never imagine using a "test" to determine motion picture academy awards. In fact, to determine "Teacher of the Year" honors within local districts, at the state level, and even at the national level, connoisseurs are called upon to serve as judges. They are asked to use their varying experience and expertise to identify the "best." In our own research on "effective" language minority schools, classrooms and teachers, we rely heavily on nominations from con-

noisseurs -- teachers, administrators, parents and students (Garcia, 1991).

Closer examination of the present mode of teacher training program evaluations indicate that the connoisseur model is the primary model in operations. "Experts" are sent to any program to evaluate the effectiveness of that program. In turn, those local program experts, acting in a connoisseur role evaluate individual teacher candidates.

Is this presently an acceptable model for evaluating language minority teaching professionals? Unfortunately, due to the innovative nature of language minority education -- we are learning how "best" to do it at the same time that we are doing it -- , the limited number of experts/connoisseurs available, and the diversity of students and therefore programs which serve these students, evaluation of language minority teachers is highly problematic. Over time, as we develop a large corp of connoisseurs, it will be possible to utilize this model, and, it is likely the only and best model appropriate. At present, however, it is not possible to implement this model on any large scale with any hope that it will be either reliable or valid.

District Level Credentialing

If the connoisseur model is not possible on a grand scale, it may not be impossible to do well on a smaller scale. Recognizing that the university programs were not, in the short term, able to meet the growing demand for linguistic minority teachers, extensive in-service training initiatives have become the typical vehicle for meeting these growing professional needs. In 1974 federal resources were dedicated to the in-service enterprise, and those resources have continued. Bilingual Education Service Centers conducted needs assessments on a regional basis and implemented regular in-service training activities from 1975 through 1982. In the late 1980s a smaller federally funded effort located in regional Multifunctional Resource Centers continued this activity. In addition, state offices of education in states highly affected by linguistic minority students have developed their own resources for in-service training programs.

Significantly, local school districts have implemented extensive in-service programs to meet their particular needs in substantively increasing the linguistic minority expertise of their teaching personnel. One such program, in Denver, Colorado, exemplifies this in-service training activity. This urban district, highly affected by linguistic minority students, determined that its needs could be partially met by the professional development of its existent teaching staff. Several training presuppositions guided the development and implementation of the in-service training.; (a) teachers needed theoretical

grounding and practical application of instruction reflecting that theory, (b) external consultants with linguistic minority expertise would work collaboratively over an extended period of time (4-6 years) with a cadre of local teachers, (c) a local teacher group demonstrating enhanced expertise would provide mentor support to their district colleagues, (d) development of new mentor groups at individual school sites would ensure the systematic augmentation of linguistic minority expertise throughout the district. The district also developed its own "credentialing" requirements, feeling that the state requirements were considerably too generous and left significant holes in requirements. A recent analysis of this in-service strategy indicates that over 500 district teachers participated in this training from the mid 1980s to the late 1980s. Significant gains in service delivery to Denver's growing population of linguistic minority students have been documented. A corp of 100 linguistic minority mentors now exists in support of the over 500 linguistic minority teachers. This mentor corps continues to provide formal training experiences, classroom demonstrations, local site networking, and curricular leadership. These experts or connoisseurs also serve to evaluate new teaching professionals.

What was born out of great necessity in Denver, Colorado, may serve to instruct us regarding the development of language minority teaching professionals and their evaluation. First, professional training takes on a localized characteristic. Such a local emphasis realizes the diversity of students and programs which are present in the local district. Over time, it develops a corp of connoisseurs, and utilizes those locally developed connoisseurs to serve in an evaluative capacity. Therefore, highly relevant local knowledge with regard to language minority education needs is transformed into locally developed experts who in turn evaluate, using local norms, the professional expertise of their colleagues. This is the connoisseur model at its best with regard to the innovative and complex nature of language minority education.

This alternative form of teacher training and district level "credentialing" was born of immediate needs that could not be met through normal teacher training or state level credentialing standards. It demonstrates a useful and highly responsive solution to a problem many school districts face with respect to linguistic minority populations. This alternative form of local training and "credentialing" training could be appropriate for enhancing the effectiveness of most educational professionals, but is worthy of particular attention to the field of language minority education.

Conclusion

It seems clear that language minority students can be served effectively by schools and educational professionals. They can be served by schools organized to develop educational structures and processes that take into consideration both the broader attributes of effective schooling practices and specific attributes relevant to language minority teachers (Carter & Chatfield, 1986; Garcia, 1988; Garcia, 1991; Tikenoff, 1983).

Although the training of language minority education teachers is in a developmental period and in need of further clarifying research, it is clearly not in its infancy. A serious body of literature addressing instructional practices, organization, and their effects is emerging. The training of professional innovators is a challenge for university and federal, state, and local educational agencies. The needs are great, and the production of competent professionals has lagged. However, professional organizations, credentialing bodies, and universities have responded with competencies, guidelines, and professional evaluation tools. These evaluation tools are problematic with regard to their reliability and validity. The most often utilized professional evaluation model is the "connoisseur" model At the state level, this model is problematic. However, local school districts have also had to engage in substantial training endeavors and they have or can develop professional evaluation models, locally derived credentials, with locally developed connoisseurs. This alternative, district level credentialing process is worthy of serious consideration. The challenge for all those engaged in such an enterprise is to consider the rapidly expanding literature regarding linguistic minority teachers, to evaluate its implications critically and to apply it to local language minority education contexts, with a dependency on locally developed connoisseurs.

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